

# Evolutionary patterns of range size, abundance and species richness in Amazonian angiosperm trees

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Amazonian tree species vary enormously in their total abundance and range size, while Amazonian tree genera vary greatly in species richness. The drivers of this variation are not well understood. Here, we construct a phylogenetic hypothesis that represents half of Amazonian tree genera in order to contribute to explaining the variation. We find several clear, broad-scale patterns. Firstly, there is significant phylogenetic signal for all three characteristics; closely related genera tend to have similar numbers of species and similar mean range size and abundance. Additionally, the species richness of genera shows a significant, negative relationship with the mean range size and abundance of their constituent species. Our results suggest that phylogenetically correlated intrinsic factors, namely traits of the genera themselves, shape among lineage variation in range size, abundance and species richness. We postulate that tree stature may be one particularly relevant trait. However, other traits may also be relevant, and our study reinforces the need for ambitious compilations of trait data for Amazonian trees. In the meantime, our study shows how large-scale phylogenies can help to elucidate, and contribute to explaining, macroecological and macroevolutionary patterns in hyperdiverse, yet poorly understood regions like the Amazon Basin.

1 **Evolutionary patterns of range size, abundance and species richness in Amazonian**  
2 **angiosperm trees**

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24 **ABSTRACT**

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30 related genera tend to have similar numbers of species and similar mean range size and  
31 abundance. Additionally, the species richness of genera shows a significant, negative relationship  
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36 study reinforces the need for ambitious compilations of trait data for Amazonian trees. In the  
37 meantime, our study shows how large-scale phylogenies can help to elucidate, and contribute to  
38 explaining, macroecological and macroevolutionary patterns in hyperdiverse, yet poorly  
39 understood regions like the Amazon Basin.

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## 47 **Introduction**

48 Some Amazonian tree species attain incredibly high abundance (tens to hundreds of millions of  
49 mature individuals), while most have small populations sizes, numbering in the thousands to tens  
50 of thousands of individuals (ter Steege *et al.* 2013, 2015). Similarly, the range of some  
51 Amazonian tree species extends across the entire Amazon basin, while most are restricted to  
52 much smaller areas (Kristiansen *et al.* 2009). A similar imbalance is observed in species to genus  
53 ratios. Over half of all Amazonian tree species belong to genera with 100 or more species, while  
54 the majority of genera (52%) have ten or fewer species (Gentry 1993). The drivers of variation in  
55 these fundamental characteristics of tree species and genera are poorly known, despite the  
56 Amazon representing the largest tropical forest in the world and housing the greatest number of  
57 tree species of any forest (Fine & Ree 2006).

58

59 Variation in the abundance of tree species at the community level is evident in any forest and has  
60 been studied in tropical forests since at least 1979 (Hubbell 1979). However, only relatively  
61 recently has sufficient taxonomic and forest inventory work been carried out at sufficiently large  
62 spatial scales (>1000 km) to explore patterns of dominance across the Amazon; the results have  
63 shown conclusively that certain tree species dominate at large spatial scales as well (Pitman *et al.*  
64 2001, ter Steege *et al.* 2013, 2015). Neutral ecological models where species drift randomly in  
65 abundance over time can generate variation in abundance, but they fail to explain the consistent  
66 dominance of some tree species across the Amazon (Hubbell 2001, Condit *et al.* 2002). This  
67 begs the question of which characteristics or traits allow certain tree species to dominate, but the  
68 absence of adequate trait datasets has limited attempts to answer this question. There are two  
69 large-scale databases available that provide reasonable coverage of Amazonian tree species, for

70 wood density and seed mass (Zanne *et al.* 2009, Royal Botanic Gardens Kew 2016), but these  
71 two traits do not appear to be related to tree abundance in the Amazon (ter Steege *et al.* 2013,  
72 2015). At smaller spatial scales, tree height has been shown to be positively correlated with  
73 abundance (Pitman *et al.* 2001, Arellano *et al.* 2014), but it is unclear if this pattern holds at the  
74 scale of the entire Amazon Basin.

75

76 There has been less progress in studying variation in the range size of Amazonian trees, in large  
77 part because many areas of the Amazon remain poorly known by botanical scientists. In 1999,  
78 Pitman and colleagues noted that “not a single tree species distribution in the Amazon basin has  
79 been reliably mapped” (Pitman *et al.* 1999), and this remains the case. Nevertheless, with some  
80 simplifying assumptions, Feeley and Silman (2009) succeeded in providing a first estimate of the  
81 range size of thousands of Amazonian plant species. These authors documented substantial  
82 variation in the range size of Amazonian tree species, but, given their focus on conservation, they  
83 did not attempt to explain this variation, and neither has any subsequent study. Range size has  
84 been shown to be positively related to the total abundance of tree species in the Amazon (ter  
85 Steege *et al.* 2013), but the arrow of causality probably goes in the reverse direction (*i.e.* tree  
86 species with larger ranges can achieve greater total abundance). Meanwhile, studies of a more  
87 limited taxonomic scope have shown that range size in Amazonian palm tree species (Arecaceae)  
88 is positively related to their height (Ruokolainen *et al.* 2002; Kristiansen *et al.* 2009). Whether  
89 this pattern holds for dicotyledenous Amazonian trees is unknown, and whether other tree traits  
90 are related to range size remains to be explored.

91

92 Lastly, while variation in the species richness of tree genera in the Amazon has been noted (*e.g.*  
93 Bermingham & Dick 2001), it has received surprisingly little research attention compared to the  
94 extensive efforts directed toward understanding the extraordinary *total* tree species richness of  
95 the Amazon (Prance 1982, Hoorn *et al.* 2010). Baker *et al.* (2014) represents a landmark in this  
96 regard, as the authors focused on explaining variation in species richness *amongst* 51 Amazonian  
97 tree lineages (primarily genera). The authors focused on assessing the role of intrinsic factors  
98 (*i.e.* traits of the lineages themselves) as compared to extrinsic factors (*e.g.* geological events) in  
99 explaining this variation. They showed that the species richness of genera was negatively related  
100 with their turnover time; genera that showed higher mortality and recruitment rates in forest  
101 inventory plots also had more species. Meanwhile, they did not find a relationship of species  
102 richness with dispersal syndrome, breeding system or tree height. The negative results in this  
103 study may be best considered as preliminary however, given that the study covered only 51 tree  
104 genera (among 100s in the Amazon) and only trees  $\geq 10$  cm diameter at breast height (1.3 m  
105 above the ground), which was the minimum size threshold for sampling trees in the forest  
106 inventory plots used to estimate turnover times.

107

108 Acquiring sufficient trait data to thoroughly evaluate the drivers of variation in the abundance,  
109 range size and species richness of Amazonian tree lineages will require many costly field  
110 campaigns that will likely take multiple decades to complete. In the meantime, alternative  
111 approaches should be pursued. One fundamental question is whether intrinsic or extrinsic factors  
112 are more important. To the degree that intrinsic factors or traits (*e.g.* tree height or dispersal  
113 syndrome) show phylogenetic signal (*cf.* Freckleton *et al.* 2002, Blomberg *et al.* 2003), large-  
114 scale phylogenies could be used to test the role of intrinsic factors in driving variation in

115 abundance, range size and species richness. In other words, if closely related lineages tend to  
116 have similar abundance, range size and species richness, then phylogenetically correlated traits  
117 are likely to be important drivers of variation in these characteristics. It is improbable that  
118 extrinsic factors would generate phylogenetic signal for abundance, range size or species  
119 richness within a given biogeographic region. Recent advances in the generation of sequence  
120 data for large numbers of Amazonian tree genera (*e.g.* Baraloto *et al.* 2012) mean that  
121 phylogenetic approaches are now feasible. Here, we generate a temporally-calibrated  
122 phylogenetic hypothesis that includes half of all Amazonian tree genera. We use this genus-level  
123 phylogeny to assess if there is phylogenetic signal for the mean range size, mean abundance and  
124 species richness of genera, with the aim of testing the importance of intrinsic traits of genera in  
125 driving macroecological and macroevolutionary patterns in Amazonian trees.

126

## 127 **Methods**

128 We intersected a list of all Neotropical tree genera (from  
129 <http://ctfs.si.edu/webatlas/neotropicaltree/>) with a list of Amazonian plant species (Feeley &  
130 Silman 2009) in order to generate a list of Amazonian tree species. The Feeley and Silman  
131 (2009) dataset additionally includes estimates of range size for all species. We obtained estimates  
132 for the total abundance of Amazonian tree species from ter Steege *et al.* (2013).

133

134 We obtained sequences of the *rbcL* plastid gene for 631 Amazonian angiosperm tree genera  
135 (Table S1), with 567 sequences coming from Genbank ([www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/](http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/genbank/)) and an  
136 additional 64 genera being newly sequenced following protocols outlined in Baraloto *et al.*  
137 (2012). We obtained sequences of the *matK* plastid gene from Genbank for 452 of the 631

138 genera with *rbcL* data (Table S1). Sequences were aligned using the MAFFT software (Katoh &  
139 Standley 2013). ‘Ragged ends’ of the sequences that were missing data for most genera were  
140 manually deleted from the alignment. Preliminary phylogenetic analyses allowed us to exclude  
141 sequences from GenBank for genera that were phylogenetically placed in a different family to  
142 that which they are thought to belong taxonomically. The final alignment can be found in the  
143 Supplementary Material.

144

145 We estimated a maximum likelihood phylogeny for the genera in RAxML v8.0.0 (Stamatakis,  
146 Hoover & Rougemont 2008), on the CIPRES web server ([www.phylo.org](http://www.phylo.org)). We used the default  
147 settings, including a General Time Reversible (GTR) + Gamma (G) model of sequence  
148 evolution, with separate models for the *rbcL* and *matK* genes (*i.e.* a partitioned analysis). We  
149 included sequences of *Amborella trichopoda* (Amborellaceae) and *Nymphaea alba*  
150 (Nymphaeaceae) as outgroups. This phylogeny (see Supplementary Material) was used as a  
151 starting tree for simultaneous topology and divergence time estimation in the software BEAST  
152 v1.82 (Drummond & Rambaut 2007). We implemented fossil-based age constraints for 25 nodes  
153 distributed across the phylogeny, using log-normal prior distributions with an offset to impose a  
154 hard minimum age (see Table S2). We used a GTR + G model of sequence evolution, with  
155 separate models for the *rbcL* and *matK* genes, an uncorrelated relaxed lognormal clock, and a  
156 birth-death model for the speciation process. We conducted several preliminary runs to optimise  
157 the tuning and weight of parameters as per recommendations generated by the software. Once  
158 parameter optimisation stabilised, we ran two separate chains for 100 million generations. The  
159 first 50 million generations of each chain were discarded as “burn-in”, as the posterior  
160 probability of the phylogeny did not stabilise until this point. We combined the post burn-in

161 posterior distributions of parameters and confirmed that effective sample size (ESS) values  
162 exceeded 100 for all parameters. We then used the phyutility software (Smith & Dunn 2008) to  
163 generate an all-compatible consensus tree from the combined post burn-in posterior distribution  
164 of trees. Node ages were optimised onto this consensus phylogeny as the median value for a  
165 given node across all trees in the posterior distribution that contained the node (using the  
166 TreeAnnotator software, Drummond & Rambaut 2007).

167

168 For each genus in the phylogeny, we calculated the mean range size and abundance for all  
169 constituent species in the Feeley and Silman (2009) and ter Steege *et al.* (2013) datasets. Of the  
170 631 genera in the phylogeny, 493 had an abundance estimate for at least one species in ter Steege  
171 *et al.* (2013). We considered the number of species for each genus in the Feeley and Silman  
172 (2009) dataset as an estimate of the species richness of that genus in the Amazon. As an  
173 alternative estimate, we used the Neotropical species richness estimates for genera in Gentry  
174 (1993), which produced highly similar results. We assessed correlations amongst these genus-  
175 level characteristics using Pearson's correlation coefficients for both the raw values and for their  
176 phylogenetically independent contrasts.

177

178 We tested for phylogenetic signal for each of these genus-level characteristics using Pagel's  $\lambda$   
179 (Freckleton, Harvey & Pagel 2002). Under Brownian motion evolution, where trait values drift  
180 randomly over evolutionary time and where the phylogenetic relationships of taxa perfectly  
181 predict the covariance among taxa for trait values, the expected value of  $\lambda$  is one. When the  
182 phylogenetic relationships of taxa do not predict the covariance at all, the expected value of  $\lambda$  is

183 zero. We compared the fit of different values for  $\lambda$  (one, zero and the maximum likelihood  
184 estimate) using the Akaike information criterion (AIC).

185

186 In order to determine which lineages may be responsible for significant phylogenetic signal for a  
187 given characteristic (*e.g.* mean range size of genera), we used the following approach. We first  
188 estimated the ancestral value at each node in the phylogeny using maximum likelihood ancestral  
189 state reconstruction (Schluter *et al.* 1997). We then randomised the tips of the phylogeny 1000  
190 times, reconstructed ancestral values at nodes each time, and compared the observed  
191 reconstructed value to that across the randomisations. If the observed value for a node was  
192 greater than that in 97.5% of the randomisations, we considered the lineage descending from that  
193 node to show significantly high values for the trait, while if the observed value was lower than  
194 2.5% of the randomisations, we considered the lineage to show significantly low values.

195

196 In order to assess whether major clades (Magnoliids, Monocots, Rosids and Asterids) differ in  
197 the species richness and mean range size and abundance of their constituent genera, we used  
198 analyses of variance with major clade as the grouping variable. In order to determine which  
199 clades may be driving significant results, we used Tukey's tests. All analyses were conducted,  
200 and figures constructed, in the R Statistical Software (R Core Development Team 2016) using  
201 functions in the ape (Paradis *et al.* 2016), geiger (Harmon *et al.* 2016) and phytools (Revell  
202 2016) packages (see Supplementary Material for codes).

203

204 **Results**

205 The phylogeny derived from the DNA sequence dataset that we compiled spans from the  
206 Magnoliids to the Asterids, thus encompassing all major clades of angiosperms (Fig. 1; see  
207 Supplementary Material for newick-formatted tree file). The 64 *rbcL* sequences that were  
208 generated as part of this study represent ~10% of the genera in the phylogeny, and they therefore  
209 represent a valuable contribution to our understanding of the evolutionary relationships of  
210 Amazonian tree genera. Most orders and families were monophyletic in the phylogeny with the  
211 notable (previously known) exceptions of Olacaceae and Icacinaceae, while the large-scale  
212 phylogenetic relationships are largely in agreement with those from recent, angiosperm-wide  
213 phylogenetic analyses (*e.g.* Magallón *et al.* 2015).

214

215 The species richness of genera is negatively correlated with mean range size ( $r = -0.40$ ,  $p <$   
216  $0.001$ ) and mean abundance ( $r = -0.38$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). These relationships are weaker, but still  
217 significant, when using phylogenetically independent contrasts (PICs), indicating that  
218 phylogenetically related traits partially underlie the correlations (mean range size PICs:  $r = -0.28$ ,  
219  $p < 0.001$ ; mean abundance PICs:  $r = -0.24$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; Fig. 2). Meanwhile, mean range size and  
220 abundance of genera are strongly positively correlated, using both the raw data and PICs ( $r =$   
221  $0.44$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ; PICs:  $r = 0.43$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ). All of the genus-level characteristics show significant  
222 phylogenetic signal, but less than would be expected under a Brownian motion model of  
223 evolution (Table 1).

224

225 Significant phylogenetic signal for these characteristics is driven by significantly high or low  
226 values in many lineages (Fig. 1, Table S3). Diverse lineages in the Magnoliids and the Asterids  
227 show high species richness and low mean range size and abundance, including the Lamiales and

228 multiple lineages in the Rubiaceae and Solanales. One marked exception to the general pattern in  
229 the Asterids is Lecythidaceae, which shows low species richness and high abundance.  
230 Meanwhile, many lineages in the Rosids show low species richness and high mean range size  
231 and abundance, including Euphorbiaceae, Salicaceae and Moraceae. Within the Rosids, the  
232 exception to this pattern is found in multiple lineages in the Myrtales, including the  
233 Melastomataceae, which show a pattern similar to most lineages in the Asterids. The  
234 Leguminosae (Fabaceae), the most genus-rich family in our dataset, does not show any  
235 significant departures from null expectations, although individual lineages therein show low  
236 species richness and high mean range size. Within the monocots, the Arecaceae show low mean  
237 range size, while one lineage (*Iriartea* with *Socratea*) shows particularly high abundance.

238

239 A non-phylogenetic comparison of genera in the major clades shows they are not significantly  
240 different in terms of mean species richness (ANOVA for species richness:  $F = 1.18$ ,  $p = 0.317$ ),  
241 while they are significantly different for mean range size and abundance, but the effect sizes are  
242 small (range size:  $F = 10.56$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.05$ ; abundance:  $F = 7.13$ ,  $p < 0.001$ ,  $R^2 = 0.04$ ).  
243 Tukey's tests reveal that genera in the Rosids have significantly larger mean ranges, on average,  
244 than genera in the Asterids ( $p < 0.001$ ) and Monocots ( $p = 0.019$ ), while genera in the Rosids  
245 and Monocots have significantly higher mean abundance than genera in the Asterids ( $p < 0.001$   
246 &  $p = 0.020$ , respectively).

247

## 248 **Discussion**

249 Fundamental characteristics of Amazonian tree genera, namely their species richness and the  
250 mean range size and abundance of their constituent species, show marked and significant

251 phylogenetic signal (Table 1). In other words, closely related genera tend to have similar  
252 numbers of species and species with similar range sizes and abundances (Fig. 1). These genus-  
253 level characteristics are also strongly correlated with each other (Fig. 2). Our results suggest that  
254 intrinsic factors (*i.e.* traits of the genera themselves) exert a strong influence on the range size,  
255 abundance and species richness of Amazonian tree species and genera.

256

257 We propose that tree height may be one of the key traits underlying the observed results. Many  
258 of the lineages in our study that show high species richness and small geographic ranges (*e.g.*  
259 Myrtaceae, Melastomataceae, Rubiaceae, Asterales, Solanales, and Lamiales) tend to be small in  
260 stature. Previous studies have shown a positive relationship between the height of Amazonian  
261 trees and their range size (Ruokolainen *et al.* 2002, Kristiansen *et al.* 2009). Such a relationship  
262 may be due to larger-statured trees being able to disperse their seeds greater distances, likely  
263 through greater fecundity, which would increase the chances that at least some seeds make it a  
264 long distance and would, for animal-dispersed species, potentially attract more dispersers.  
265 Increased dispersal ability would also increase gene flow among distant populations, which, in  
266 turn, could reduce opportunities for allopatric isolation and contribute to reduced diversification.  
267 Smaller statured trees may also have shorter generation times, which could contribute to  
268 increased diversification (Baker *et al.* 2014). Thus, small-stature may be a biological trait that  
269 spurs diversification and may also underlie the negative correlation between mean range size and  
270 species richness of genera. Small-statured lineages also show lower abundances in the datasets  
271 assembled, although this is partly, if not entirely, explained by the abundance estimates being  
272 derived from tree plots that survey individuals >10 cm diameter at breast height (ter Steege *et al.*  
273 2013). Meanwhile, the relationship between mean abundance and species richness of genera may

274 simply be a by-product of correlations between range size and abundance. These are likely  
275 necessarily related as the range size of a species will restrict the total abundance that it can  
276 achieve.

277

278 Our focus on tree height as a key variable does not negate a role for other phylogenetically  
279 correlated traits in contributing to the observed results. In local-scale studies of Amazonian tree  
280 communities, most of the traits that have been examined (*e.g.* wood density, specific leaf area)  
281 have shown significant phylogenetic signal (Kraft & Ackerly 2010, Baraloto *et al.* 2012). Large-  
282 scale compilations of trait data from across the Amazon are now needed in order to assess which  
283 exact traits may be driving our results.

284

285 It is important to note that the phylogenetic signal we observe for these genus-level  
286 characteristics is less than would be expected under a Brownian motion model of evolution. In  
287 fact, the Brownian model fits the data much worse than a simple model whereby there is no  
288 phylogenetic dependence to the observed values (Table 1). This result may be due to some  
289 evolutionary process, such as selection, driving closely related genera to diverge in values for the  
290 studied genus-level characteristics. However, in contrast to what might be thought for other traits  
291 (*e.g.* those related to ecological niches such as resource acquisition or defence strategy), it is not  
292 immediately clear why selection would favour divergence among closely related lineages in their  
293 diversification rate, average range size or average abundance. Alternatively, a Brownian motion  
294 model may be simply a poor descriptor of how these genus-level characteristics change over  
295 time. The Brownian motion model stipulates that per unit time, small changes in trait values are  
296 much more likely than large changes. It may be the case that large changes in range size,

297 abundance and diversification rate among closely related changes are just as likely as small  
298 changes. The exact pattern of change in these characteristics would depend on how the  
299 underlying driving factors themselves, be they intrinsic or extrinsic, change over time and space.

300

301 In any case, the phylogenetic signal we document is evident across multiple phylogenetic scales.

302 At a broad scale, we find that various lineages in the Rosids are comprised of genera that show

303 low species richness and high mean range size and abundance, while lineages in the Magnoliids

304 and Asterids show the opposite pattern. Interestingly, a non-phylogenetic approach, using

305 analyses of variance, did not find large differences amongst these major lineages. This contrast in

306 results may be due in part to lineages within the major clades that belie the general pattern. For

307 example, the Myrtales (in the Rosids) show a pattern typical of the Asterids, while the

308 Lecythidaceae (in the Asterids) show a pattern typical of Rosids. The contrast is likely also due

309 to the manner in which these genus-level characteristics are distributed across the phylogeny.

310 While genera within a given major clade can show a diversity of values for these characteristics,

311 their relative phylogenetic positions result in reconstructed ancestral values that show systematic

312 differences amongst lineages in different major clades. A phylogenetic approach was thus

313 necessary to reveal how these major clades differ have differed over evolutionary time. This

314 phylogenetic approach has also served to show how phylogenetically-correlated factors, intrinsic

315 to lineages themselves, have contributed to the macroecological and macroevolutionary patterns

316 observed in present-day Amazonian trees.

317

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323

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453 **Data accessibility**

454 DNA sequences: For Genbank accession numbers, see Table S1.

455 Phylogeny: TreeBASE, <http://purl.org/phylo/treebase/phyloids/study/TB2:S19277?x-access->

456 [code=38f1545d97977839af2bf6a9498817a7&format=html](http://purl.org/phylo/treebase/phyloids/study/TB2:S19277?x-access-code=38f1545d97977839af2bf6a9498817a7&format=html)

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476 **Table 1:**  $\Delta$ AIC values for different evolutionary models of trait evolution for genus-level  
 477 characteristics and for different values of Pagel's  $\lambda$ .

<b>Genus characteristic</b>	<b>Evolutionary Model</b>	$\lambda$	$\Delta$ AIC
	estimated $\lambda$	0.26	0
log (Species richness)	no phylogenetic dependence	0	-17.1
	Brownian motion	1	-287.8
	estimated $\lambda$	0.37	0
log (Mean range size)	no phylogenetic dependence	0	-52.0
	Brownian motion	1	-257.9
	estimated $\lambda$	0.32	0
log (Mean abundance)	no phylogenetic dependence	0	-34.2
	Brownian motion	1	-287.5

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488 **Figure 1:** Phylogeny of 631 Amazonian tree genera with terminal branches coloured according  
489 to the **(A)** species richness, **(B)** mean range size, and **(C)** mean abundance of genera. The  
490 following numbered nodes are mentioned in the main text: 1=Areaceae, 2=Magnoliids,  
491 3=Rosids, 4=Asterids, 5=Myrtales, 6=Melastomataceae, 7=Euphorbiaceae, 8=Salicaceae,  
492 9=Moraceae, 10=Leguminosae, 11=Lamiales, 12=Rubiaceae, 13=Solanales, and  
493 14=Lecythidaceae. Nodes that are coloured blue indicate lineages whose constituent genera show  
494 significantly higher values for the given genus-level characteristic than expected by chance,  
495 while nodes coloured red show significantly lower values than expected by chance.

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497 **Figure 2:** Relationships between species richness and mean range size and abundance for  
498 Amazonian tree genera. Histograms of each genus-level characteristic are given on the diagonal.  
499 Below the diagonal the raw relationships are shown along with the best-fit linear relationship and  
500 the Pearson correlation coefficient. Above the diagonal, the relationships of phylogenetically  
501 independent contrasts (PICs) are shown along with the best-fit linear relationship that is forced  
502 through the origin and the Pearson correlation coefficient.

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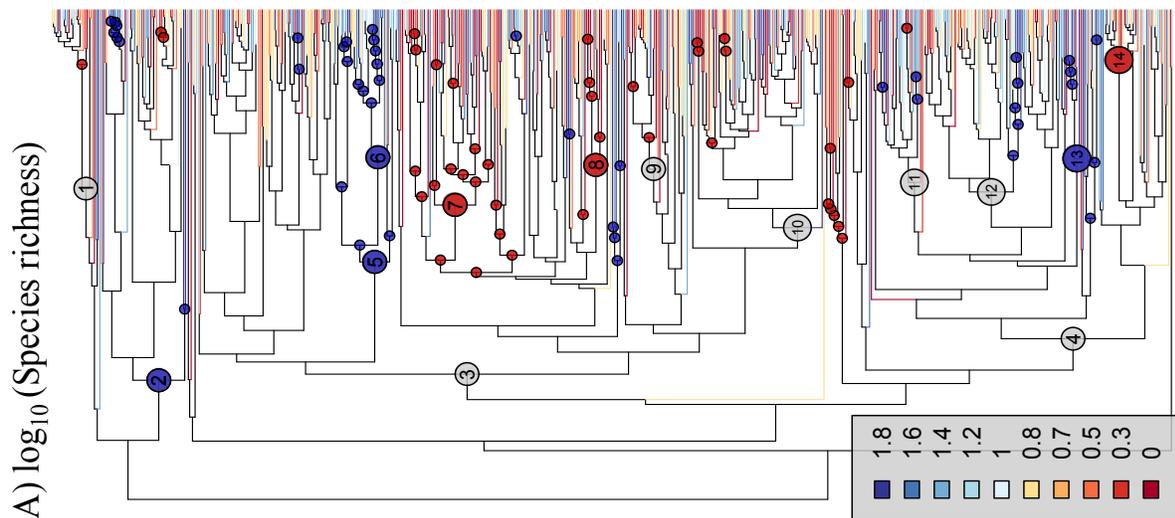
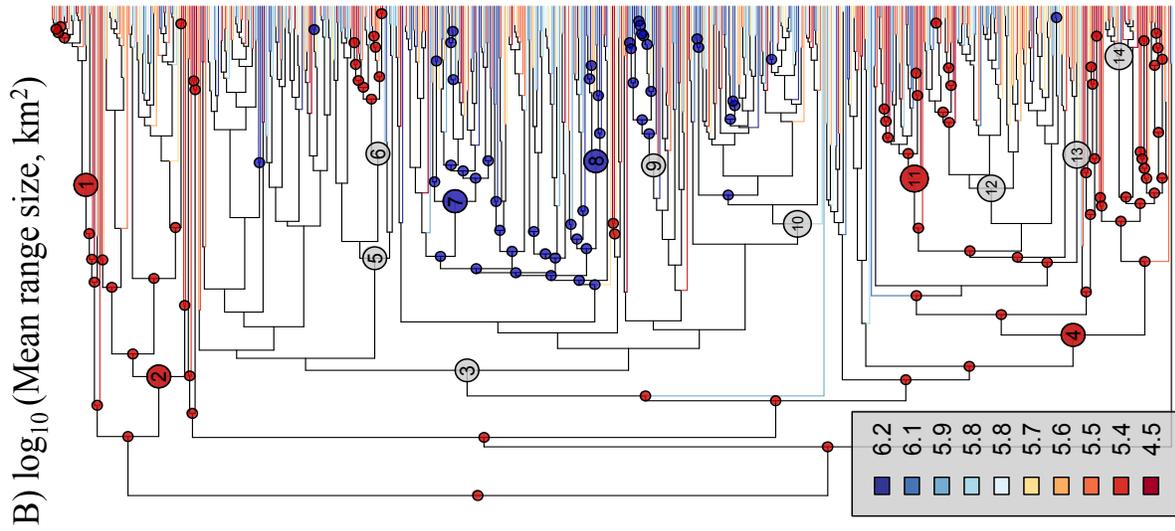
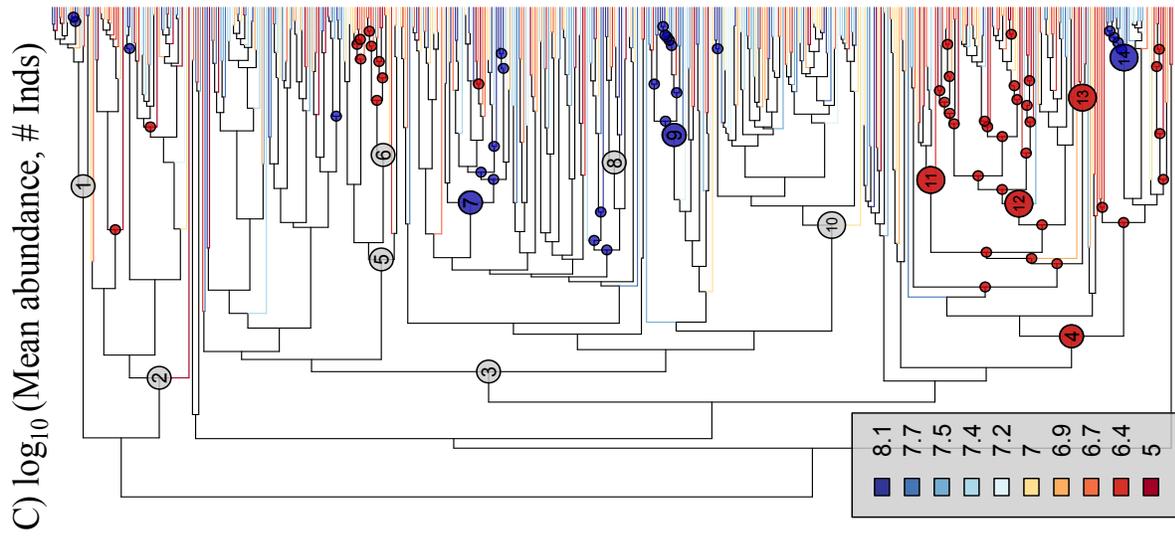
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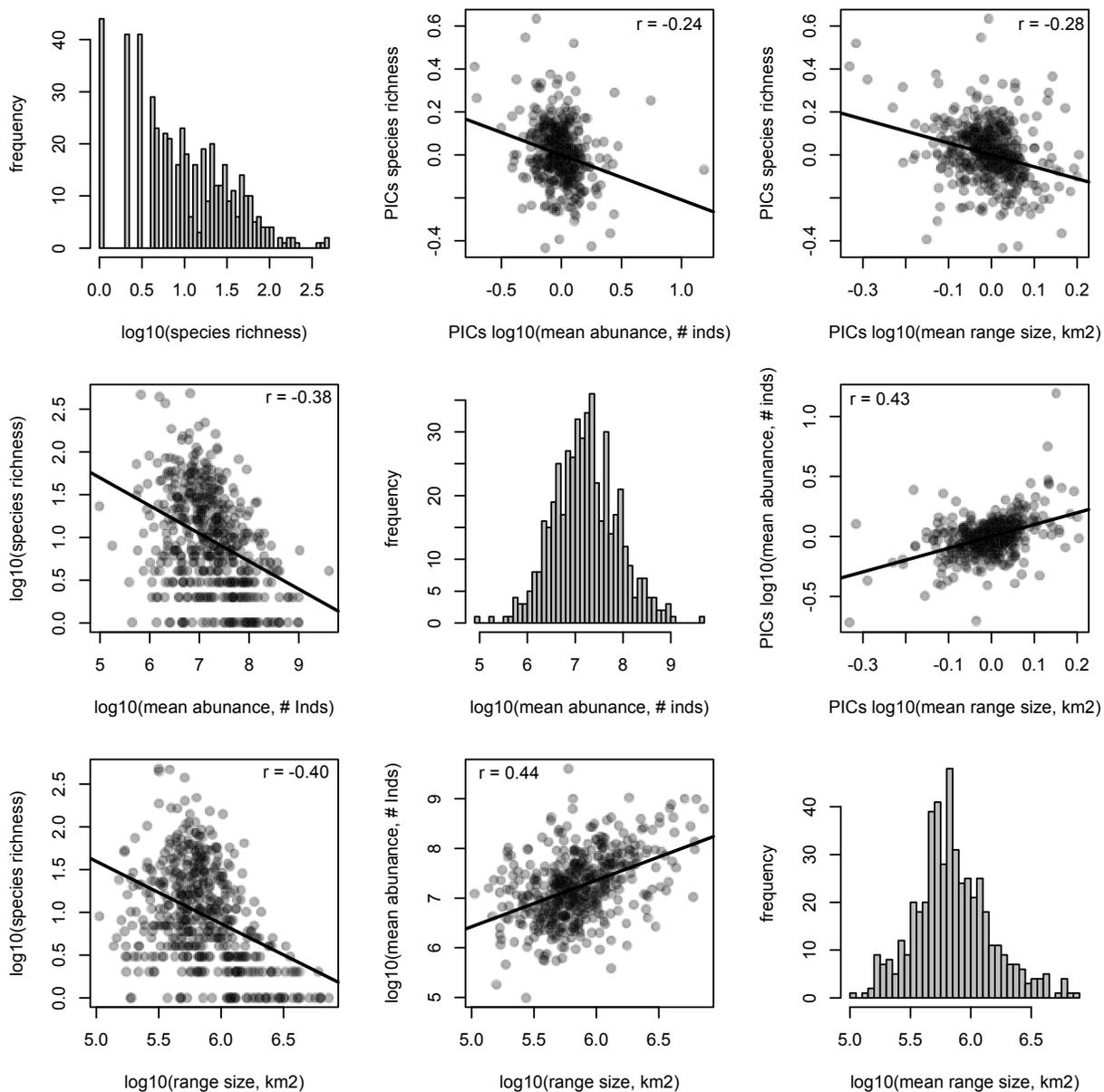
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511 **Figure 1**



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513 **Figure 2**

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520 **Supplementary Files**

521 **Table S1:** Amazonian tree genera in the phylogeny generated in this study, along with the  
522 species to which each rbcL and matK accession belongs and the associated Genbank accession  
523 numbers. For novel sequences, we also give the collection number.

524 **Table S2:** Nodes in the phylogeny that were constrained based on fossil ages in the temporally-  
525 calibrated phylogenetic analysis. The hard minimum age allowed for the node (*i.e.* the offset)  
526 and the mean and standard deviation of the log-normal prior are given, in millions of years.

527 **Table S3:** Taxonomic lineages present in the phylogeny along with their reconstructed values for  
528 species richness, range size and abundance (all log transformed to the base 10 prior to analysis).  
529 The probability that a given lineage has a smaller value than that reconstructed is also given,  
530 based on a permutation test described in the main text. If this probability is smaller than 0.025,  
531 then the lineage is described as having a significantly smaller value than expected by chance,  
532 while the converse holds if the value is greater than 0.975.

533 **rbcL\_matK\_alignment.fasta:** Final sequence alignment used in phylogenetic analyses. The two  
534 genes are concatenated, with rbcL forming the first 1320 base pairs of the alignment.

535 **Amazon\_genus\_phylog\_RAxML.tre:** Maximum likelihood phylogeny for Amazonian tree  
536 genera.

537 **Amazon\_genus\_phylog\_BEAST.tre:** Temporally-calibrated phylogeny for Amazonian tree  
538 genera. This is the all-compatible consensus tree generated from the posterior distribution of  
539 trees from a Bayesian phylogenetic analysis, with node ages representing the median value for  
540 each node across the posterior distribution of trees.

541 **Dexter\_AmazonTrees\_script.R:** The script for all analyses conducted for this manuscript in the  
542 R Statistical Software.

543 **taxonomy\_table.csv:** Infile used in the R script, which contains the taxonomic classification for  
544 each genus in the study.